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ABSTRACT

This study examines how administrators can help second language (SL) teachers create learning environments that promote SL learning and motivate students to learn; how the structure of the educational organization and relationship between SL teachers and colleagues affect program quality; how SL teachers can effectively manage learners' needs and use of available resources; and strategies to promote efficient and successful allocation and use of available resources. Data from a literature review and interviews with SL teachers from schools and community-based organizations indicate that individuals acquire second languages best in relaxed, stress-free learning environments, where they are not forced to speak the target language immediately and are challenged but never frustrated. SL teachers must possess all the qualities of good teachers, be proficient in the target language, use varied teaching methods, maximize exposure to the target language, and receive ongoing professional development. Second languages must be regarded as a mainstream subject. Small classes are beneficial in teaching and learning SLs for communication purposes. Evaluation of SL programs must be considered integral to the program. Homework, more teacher-student contact time, and networking of teachers and institutions are vital in the process of teaching and learning SLs. (Contains 78 references.) (SM)

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THE FLINDERS UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AUSTRALIA

MASTER OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

RESEARCH PAPER IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

MANAGING THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT FOR SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

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CHAPTER ONE

THE PARAMETERS OF THE PROJECT

Introduction / The Problem

In Greece and in Europe generally the study of a **second language (SL)** is given considerable weight and attention. Pupils are given their first SL instruction at primary school. At the secondary level students generally study two other languages except the official language - English and French or German. At tertiary level SL is a compulsory subject during the first three years and an elective subject during the later years. Particularly in Greece parents spend a considerable amount of the family budget offering to their children SL instruction through tutoring. Job advertisements set as a prerequisite the knowledge of at least one SL. A great number of professionals need to speak, write and understand one SL, because the citizens of the European Union (EU) are free to move without any restrictions and establish their businesses or look for employment within the EU. In addition, refugees from Iraq and Kurdistan, migrants with a Greek origin from the former Soviet Union, and a work force from the former communist countries of Eastern Europe and from South East Asia with a limited or trivial knowledge of Greek, are seeking employment in Greece. All the above mentioned factors constitute a pressing need for the Greek Government, for educational administrators and for community-based organisations to create a learning environment for SL learning that promotes and facilitates SL learning and motivates students in SL acquisition.

From my own experience as a SL learner and later as a SL teacher - I taught Greek for five consecutive years in Australia - I formed the impression that the need for having SL speakers and experts in any society and the learning environment of the SL classroom are somehow in contradiction Generally speaking the SL classroom is characterised by: (1) the slow academic progress of students; (2) students' lack of appreciation of the teacher's efforts; and (3) lack of enthusiasm for learning activities. These characteristics are due to the inadequacy of the SL classroom to function as a place that promotes, facilitates and motivates students in SL acquisition, particularly in schooling where SL learning is a compulsory subject and the students are obliged to attend SL instruction. This situation is not the same in adult classes where the main purpose of the instruction is communication, not preparation for meeting the demands of the end of the year exams.

Policy makers, school administrators, teachers, parents, community agents are faced with the big challenge of delivering effective and appropriate SL curriculum programs. I believe, however, that the teacher and his/her approach stand at the central point. Unfortunately, the SL teacher faces a number of unfavourable conditions that hinder the creation of an optimum learning environment for SL learning. First, despite the fact that many SL teacher preparation programs provide training in program design, the curriculum in many schools is not designed by

teachers , but is mandated by higher authority or determined by the need to prepare students for standardised tests. Second, SL teachers are often isolated from the rest of the school. Many SL teachers are working at more than one school so they need to move from school to school. They do not have preparation periods and they do not get paid for that part of their responsibilities, with regrettably predictable effects on program quality. Third, SL teachers have a large number of students, much larger than other subject teachers or classroom teachers, which results in heavy reporting demands. Fourth, the state education system of South Australia is facing severe cuts in funding and the number of permanent full-time positions for SL teachers is very limited. SL teachers are thus obliged to take second jobs , which limits time for professional development activities. Fifth, the underfunding of the public education system affects the size of the SL classes and the time allocated for SL instruction. In many schools, SL class sizes of thirty-five students with a twenty minutes allocated time for instruction are commonplace.

For an optimum learning environment to take place in SL learning the school administration or the administration of the community-based organisation together with the SL teacher(s) have to take into consideration along with the other factors that constitute the key elements of an excellent learning environment, the gender and the age of the learners, their academic and cultural background, their individual learning styles, and their needs in the **target language.**

Personal & Professional Benefits From The Proposed Project

First and foremost, what interests me more in the study of managing the learning environment for SL instruction is the importance for the Greek youth to acquire a SL, especially when taking into consideration the fact that Greek is a "minority" language in the "global village" and in the world-wide economy. In addition, Greece as an EU member has the moral obligation to provide its young citizens with the knowledge of at least one SL, in order to enable them to understand and accept as many cultures as possible from those that constitute the EU.

I am highly involved in the process of delivering Greek language and culture programs to Greeks abroad and to whoever is interested in that, through a project of the Greek government, which aims to help Greeks all over the world to maintain contact with their mother tongue and their distinctive culture, and to promote the Greek language and interests. From my Australian experience I strongly believe that something is missing from this process. The learning environment of the class leaves a lot to be desired, and in some cases it could not be worse. From discussions with other language teachers I found out that they shared the same problems, probably due to the fact that SL teachers face the same problems as special education teachers (Markham, P. , Green, S.B. , & Ross, M.E. , 1996). Studying about managing the learning environment for SL learning will be beneficial for me in terms of personal development and career opportunities.

Returning to my own country I wish to be involved in the management of SL programs. It is important for me to study and learn what constitutes an optimum

learning environment for second language learning. If we are asking the question "Why SL teachers teach they way they do?" with the implication that we are not satisfied with the situation, and personally I am not satisfied and I am a teacher, a central concern with management must then be "Why doesn't management help teachers change the way they teach?". From my own experience, I have drawn the conclusion that a possible answer is simply that the management of SL programs is likely to be of a patchy quality. One of the primary responsibilities of the educational management is to promote change in the sense teachers teach, in the sense of promoting increased teacher expertise and insight. Many educational administrations have yet to recognise this responsibility.

Professionally speaking, I would like to argue that the creation of an optimum learning environment for SL learning is vital for the continuity of the SL teacher as a profession. Educational organisations, particularly those which offer SL programs, have to become learning organisations and to incorporate procedures for a systematic, ongoing evaluation of any SL program. If we want to regard SL instruction as a profession and SL teachers as professionals the learning environment has to reflect the best interests of the client or norms of the profession. Teachers' teaching style is influenced by: (1) how they were taught themselves, (2) how they were trained and the content of that training, (3) their colleagues and the administration, (4) exposure to new ideas, (5) materials available, and (6) the type of students (Freeman, D.E. & Freeman, Y.S. 1994). Times are changing. Those who find themselves in the process of learning a SL have different needs from those in the past. The process of education itself is changing to meet the needs of a rapidly changing environment. The needs of the tomorrows clientele for SL learning will be different from today's. Programs come and go. There is an ongoing paradigm shift in SL instruction, from a focus on knowledge about language, to a focus on communicative competence along with fluency. This paradigm shift, has deflected the emphasis away from grammatical competence (Krashen, S.D. & Terrell, T.D. 1983), and now focuses on language use, that is, the ability to use a SL competently in speaking, listening, reading and writing (Omagio, A.C. 1986). Now in the 1990s there appears to be a convergence on key issues between proponents of proficiency-oriented instruction and the Natural Approach (Tschirner, E. 1996). SL textbooks of the 1990s do not look at all like the textbooks of the 1970s.

Questions To Be Resolved

1. How does the administration help SL teachers to create a learning environment that promotes and facilitates SL learning and motivates students to acquire the target language?
2. How does the structure of the educational organisation and the relationships between SL teachers their colleagues and administration affect the quality of SL programs?
3. What do SL teachers have to do to effectively manage the learners' needs and the use of the available resources?

4. What are the strategies that have to be employed for the efficient and successful allocation/use of the available resources (financial - material - human) in order to successfully manage SL programs?

Method

The relevant literature will be reviewed , looking at both sections, schooling and adult education, in order to come up with what are the key elements for a good learning environment for SL learning and how these elements are managed in successful programs. From this review a number of questions will arise. Ten SL teachers will be interviewed five in schooling and five in community based organisations that offer SL programs. A comparison of the two views (theory - practice) will follow to see if the practice is in accordance with the theory, and if it is not to identify a number of reasons that are responsible for this discrepancy between practice and theory. Finally, the data gained from the literature review, the interviewing of practitioners and from the comparison of the two views (theory - practice) will be analysed to establish a number of recommendations for managing an optimum SL learning environment.

Definition of Terms

In this project **second language (SL) learning** is defined as the process of learning another language from six years of age and thereafter in a foreign language context (e.g. English in Greece or German in Australia) as well as learning a new language in a host environment (e.g. English in England). The term **second language** refers to both foreign and host languages. **Target language** refers to the language being learned or taught.

The words "learning" and "acquisition" are used interchangeably, although they are sometimes used in the SL literature to distinguish between conscious and subconscious language development (Krashen and Terrell, 1983), arguing with Dulay, Burt & Krashen (1982) who in order to make this important distinction use the words "conscious" and "subconscious" respectively.

The following definitions are also used for the purpose of this project.
Articulation: The gradual, sequential progression within and between levels in a given content area (Heining-Boynton, 1990:505).
Block Scheduling: Part of the daily schedule is organised into larger blocks of time, more than sixty minutes, to allow flexibility for a diversity of instructional activities {Cawelti (1994); cited in Imsher, 1996:1}.
Host Language: The language spoken in a country.
Morale: The professional interest and enthusiasm that a person displays towards the achievement of individual and group goals in a given job situation (Lumsden, 1998).
School culture: A system of shared values, beliefs, ceremonies, rituals, traditions, and myths that guides a school's policy toward employees and customers and it is understood by members of the school community.

Limitations

The issues of bilingualism and English as a second language (ESL) because of the stated aims of this study were not included, except peripherally.

It may be questioned whether the relatively small size of the sample of 10 second-language teachers provides sufficient breadth of opinion to identify trends. However, to widen the sample would necessitate some sort of statistical treatment which will inrease the length of this Project over the set limit.

Assumptions Underlying The Study

The study assumes that:
1. respondents will give honest answers to the questions in the questionnaire;
2. the structured interview method of conducting the survey is appropriate;
3. the items of the questionnaire are not open to misinterpretation by the respondents; and
4. the interviewing will be conducted in an unbiased manner.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews research and opinion literature from Australia and overseas and is concerned with (i) the theories underlying second language learning and the different types of second-language programs, (ii) the centrality of the language teacher, (iii) the management of second language programs, and (iv) the climate and the culture of the educational institution. In exploring the relevant literature, it is seen as important to establish (i) an appropriate theoretical framework for second-language learning, (ii) the central role of the language teacher in the process of learning another language, (iii) that management has to be extremely cautious in selecting and developing a program, and (iv) that a healthy organisational climate and a strong organisational culture are more than important in promoting the collaboration between the members of the organisation and motivating teachers and students towards the accomplishment of the organisational goals.

1. Theoretical Framework

In a thoughtful review of theories about second language learning process McLaughlin (1987) identified five broad theories: (i) interlanguage theory, (ii) linguistic universals, (iii) acculturation/pidginization theory, (iv) cognitive theory, and (v) natural approach. The five broad theories are described as follows:

1. The term **"Interlanguage"** refers to a set of rules constructed by second-language learners on their way to the acquisition of the target language (Selinker, 1972). It means two things: (i) the language that learners use at a single point in time, which includes all the errors in pronunciation, grammar and syntax that learners make when trying to produce written or oral sentences in the target language, and (ii) the development of learners' language over time, which refers to the rules and strategies that learners apply to their written or oral output (McLaughlin, 1987; Selinker, 1972). According to Selinker (1972) interlanguage is the product of five cognitive processes involved in second-language learning.

- Language transfer: some elements of the interlanguage result from transfer from the first language.
- Transfer of training: some elements of the interlanguage result from the training process used to teach the target language.
- Strategies of second-language learning: Selinker (1972:219) argues that "Strategies for handling target language material evolve whenever the leaner realises, either consciously or subconsciously, that he has no linguistic competence with regard to some aspect of the target language". The tendency of learners to reduce the target language to a simpler system and to avoid grammatical formatives such as articles, plural forms and past tense forms are examples of strategies of second-language learning.

- Strategies of second-language communication: some elements of the interlanguage may result from specific ways people learn to communicate with native speakers of the target language.
- Overgeneralisation of the target language linguistic material: some elements of the interlanguage may be the product of overgeneralisation of the rules of the target language. Speakers of other languages may produce sentences like "What did he intended to say?" or "I drive a bicycle" in their English interlanguage. In the first sentence, the past tense morpheme *-ed* is extended to a situation in which, according to the learner, it could logically apply, but just does not. In the second sentence, there is an overgeneralisation in the use of *drive* to all vehicles.

The development of interlanguage was seen by Selinker (1972) as being different from the process of first-language development because of the likelihood of fossilisation in the second language. Fossilisation, here refers to when individuals stop learning the language once they have learned enough to communicate, no matter how long there is exposure in the language or new teaching.

Interlanguage theory was applied principally to adult second-language performance. It is concerned with describing the systematicity and variability in the performance of language learners, how interlanguage develops, and the role of first-language in interlanguage development. Its primary purpose is to describe learners' systems of learning and gives little attention to pedagogical concerns. Interlanguage theory has had only a minor impact on pedagogy (McLaughlin, 1987).

2. There are two main approaches taken to the study of **linguistic universals** in second-language leaning: (i) work that follows the approach taken by J.H. Greenberg, and (ii) work that derives from the writings of Noam Chomsky (Gass, 1984).

The approach taken by Greenberg (1974), known as *Typological Approach*, tries to determine how languages vary and what constraints and principles underlie this variation. It begins by analysing data from a representative sample of the world's languages to extract universal patterns. It focuses on what is common to all languages and on the variation that exists between languages in this search for linguistic universals (McLaughlin, 1987).

The Chomskyan approach, known as *Universal Grammar* theory, is an in-depth analysis of a single language and is a theory based on grammatical competence. It views Universal Grammar as part of the brain (McLaughlin, 1987). According to Chomsky (1980:69) "Universal grammar is a set of properties, conditions, or whatever, that constitute the initial state of the language learner, hence is the basis on which knowledge of language develops". This approach means that a certain part of the human brain is biologically determined and specialised for language learning. The linguistic properties and conditions that constitute the Universal grammar underlie all languages and are endowed to all individuals. Thus the ability to acquire a language is genetically determined. When individuals learn a particular

language, they form hypotheses within the guidelines set by Universal grammar, which they then test in practice. The environment that determines which principles of the Universal grammar will be accessed, and experience gained from interaction, transform Universal grammar, present in the child's mind, into the adult's knowledge of the language (Chomsky, 1980).

Both the Typological approach and the Universal Grammar approach have generated useful predictions about the influence of the first-language in second-language learning and interlanguage development, but attention has been restricted to (i) a relatively small set of syntactic phenomena, such as the acquisition of dative structures by second-language learners (Mazurkewich, 1984, cited in McLaughlin, 1987); and (ii) the types of grammatical and syntactical errors that speakers of others languages make in their effort to learn English (White, 1983; Flyn, 1983; and Munoz-Liceras, 1983, all cited in McLaughlin, 1987). Additionally, universal statements require for their validity a representative sample of human languages. This urges McLaughlin (1987:101) to ask "How is one to know that a sample is sufficiently large and varied to include examples of all the kinds of structures found in human languages?".

3. The **Acculturation/Pidginisation theory** (Schumann, 1978) emphasises the role of social and psychological factors in second-language development. Schumman (1978) proposes that early second-language acquisition is analogous to pidginisation (the imperfect speech of second-language learners acquired through restricted contact with speakers of the target language). He argues that second language acquisition is determined by the degree of social and psychological distance between the learner and the culture of the target language. The greater the distance the less becomes the progress beyond the early stages of learning the second language and the language will stay pidginised. For Schumann (1978), acculturation (the acceptance of the culture of the target language) is a determining variable in that it controls the level of success achieved by second-language learners.

Regarding the Acculturation/pidginisation theory, Ellis (1985) and McLaughlin (1987) argue that (i) it is addressed to naturalistic adult second-language acquisition, where learners have more or less contact with the target language community, (ii) it says nothing about classroom second-language learning, and (iii) the psychological distance is a variable that is difficult to be measured.

4. Within the framework of **Cognitive theory,** second-language learning is viewed as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill. Learning a foreign language is a cognitive process which includes procedures for selecting appropriate vocabulary, grammatical rules, and practical formalities that govern the use of the target language (McLaughlin, 1987). The central premises of Cognitive theory are: (i) humans are limited-capacity processors so they use various information-handling techniques to overcome capacity limitations, (ii) through practice, various skills performed automatically, and (iii) as performance improves, there is constant

restructuring as learners simplify, unify and gain increasing control over their output (McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod, 1983).

There are two models of languages teaching and learning based upon Cognitive theory (Scarino, Vale, McKay, & Clark, 1988a).

- The first model, emphasises learning through repetition and the mechanical drilling of the target language structures. The structures and the vocabulary to be learnt are presented in the form of an idealised dialogue. They are then practised in the form of drills and exercises, and the dialogue is reproduced, or an analogous one is reconstructed, by the learner.
- The second model, places the emphasis on the practice of skills within the sort of "situations" that the learner is thought to be likely to encounter when using the target language. Learners rehearse such situations as "getting a meal", or "finding the way". The focus of attention moves from structures to meanings, and there is sometimes little emphasis on mastery of the grammar system.

The models based upon Cognitive theory have been followed by most teachers in their practice (McLaughlin, 1987).

The difficulty with a cognitive skill-based model of language learning is that teaching can easily lapse from a creative process into drill-and-practice exercises, and destroy learners' motivation, for it does not enable learners to use structures and phrases spontaneously outside the drill situation (McLaughlin, 1987; Scarino et al. 1988a). Krashen and Terrell (1983) argue that such an approach leaves little room for creative construction and places too great an emphasis on the conscious learning of rules.

5. The most ambitious theory, in the sense that is an overall theory, is Krashen's **Natural Approach**. It is a theory of "communicative competence". Terell (1977:326) defines this term as "The ability of the student to understand the essential points of what a native speaker says to him in a real communicative situation and can respond in such way that the native speaker interprets the respond with little or no effort and without errors that are so distracting that they interfere drastically with communication".

The theoretical model of the Natural Approach is based on five hypotheses (Krashen & Terell, 1983) .

- *The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis.* Language acquisition is the natural way to develop linguistic ability by using the target language for real communication. Language learning is knowing about the rules and grammar of the target language consciously and being able to talk about them. The acquisition-learning hypothesis claims that adults can still acquire second languages, and that the ability to pick up languages does not disappear at puberty. It does not imply necessarily that adults can acquire perfectly the target language or that they can always achieve a native level of proficiency.
- *The Natural Order Hypothesis.* This hypothesis suggests that the grammatical structures of a language will be acquired in approximately the same order, and that adults show a natural order in learning grammatical morphemes. Certain

structures will tend to be acquired early, such as the progressive tense marker *-ing*, or the plural *-s*, and certain others relatively late, such as the third person singular morpheme *-s*, or the *'s* possessive marker in learning English as a second language.

- *The Monitor Hypothesis.* The Monitor is a trigger in the brain that applies rules that have been learned to accurately produce or interpret a message in the target language. The monitor at work makes the speaker aware of a mistake after it has spoken aloud. For the monitor to work effectively, the speaker must know the rule, have time to think of the rule and apply it, and be in a setting in which is appropriate to focus on form. These conditions do not usually apply in the normal conversational situations in which an adult is most commonly exposed to the target language.
- *The Input Hypothesis.* This hypothesis suggests that the most important factor in the amount of language acquired by a learner is the amount of comprehensible input (the amount of language which the learner can fully understand, plus a little more) to which the learner is exposed. For Natural Approach, the learner must always be challenged, but never to a point at which frustration sets in. The input hypothesis advocates the exclusive use of the target language for all classroom purposes. However, it must be used in a such a way that the message is always understood by the student, even though every word of the message may not be familiar. This is accomplished through the use of gestures, examples, illustrations, experiences, and slow speech.
- *The Affective Filter Hypothesis.* Children and adults resist learning when learning is unpleasant, painful, or being attempted in a punitive environment. The affective filter is a function of the brain. It goes up and blocks second-language input in the presence of anxiety, low self-confidence, and in the absence of motivation. It goes down and the input can come through when (i) motivation is high, (ii) a student is self-confident, and (iii) learning takes place in relatively anxiety-free environment. The filter plays an important role in planning lessons for adult learners, to whom a major source of anxiety is to speak a second language early.

According to Terrell (1977) and Krashen & Terrell (1983) the Natural Approach to second language learning consists of three principals. First, listening or reading comprehension precedes speaking or writing abilities. Thus, the starting point in language instruction is to help students understand what is being said to them. Second, production in the target language is allowed to emerge in stages: (i) nonverbal response, (ii) response with a single word, (iii) combinations of two or three words, (iv) phrases, (v) sentences, and finally (vi) more complex discourse. Third, whatever the particular syllabus of studies might be under this theory, it must be based on achieving communicative goals. This means that the focus of each classroom activity is organised by topic (ie. activities at home, careers and professions, immediate past events, cultural events), not grammatical structure.

In summary, the Natural Approach (Terell 1977; Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982; Krashen & Terell, 1983) to language learning suggests the following:

- the goal of language instruction should be communicative competence;
- the language to which learners are exposed should be as natural as possible;
- learners are not forced to speak in the target language during the initial weeks of instruction. They should feel free to respond in their native language, target language, any mixture of the two or through physical activities;
- the entire class period should be devoted to communicative activities, because only into the classroom the students will have a chance to exercise any natural ability to acquire the language, unless they live in an area in which the target language is spoken;
- homework carefully planned to make learners feel responsible for their own improvement, with explanations clear enough to be understood by most of the students focusing on the improvement and development of students' grammar is needed, if we expect any improvement in the language that students use; and assignments should be completed, collected, and evaluated in a systematic way; and
- error correction should be done only in written assignments which focus specifically on form of the language and never during oral communication.

School-based language programs where the Natural Approach is the underlying philosophy include: (i) Immersion, (ii) Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES), and (iii) Schools of International Studies (SIS) (Benevento, 1985; Curtin & Pesola, 1994). In adult education, both the Language Experience Approach (LEA) (Taylor, 1992) and the Counselling-Learning/Community Language Learning (CLL) (Curran, 1976) are based on the assumptions of the Natural Approach.

Immersion "is a method of foreign language instruction in which the regular school curriculum is taught through the medium of the language" (Met, 1993:1).
Immersion programs range on continuum from total to partial immersion in terms of time spent in the target language. Total immersion programs typically follow the Canadian model, in which only the foreign language is used in kindergarten and grades one and two. The use of English is introduced in grade three and it is increased little by little, so that by the end of grade six, one-quarter to one-half of the classes are taught in English (Benevento, 1985). The long-range goals of an immersion program include: (i) developing a high level of proficiency in the foreign language; and (ii) developing positive attitudes toward those who speak the target language and toward their culture.

Foreign Language in the Elementary School programs are organised in response to community interest and may include classes before or after the regular school day (Benevento, 1985). For example, the St. John Bosco Catholic School in Adelaide offers Greek to its students twice a week for class periods of two hours each after the regular school day. Rosenbusch (1991) and Curtin & Pesola (1994) argue that classes should be conducted within the school day. Classes in FLES programs are met three to five times per week for a minimum average of seventy-five minutes per week. A FLES program focuses on the production and comprehension of meaningful messages in a communicative setting. Listening and speaking skills are emphasised more than are reading and writing, and

understanding and appreciation of the new culture are identified as important goals (Rosenbusch, 1992; Curtin & Pesola, 1994).

Schools of International Studies are schools-within-a-school, where foreign languages are integrated particularly with the host language and social studies, as well as other subjects. These multi-disciplinary programs have high standards and are intended to provide a background for careers in international trade and government. Off-campus field work usually is required by agencies involved in international affairs (Benevento, 1985).

The Language Experience Approach promotes listening, speaking, writing, and reading through the use of personal experiences. Krashen & Terrell (1983), suggest that the language learners are exposed to, should be at a level which they can fully understand, plus a little more, and the topic should be interesting to the learner. LEA, begins with learners' individual or shared experiences as a basis for discussion, writing, and finally reading, to meet these two criteria. Thus, the degree of complexity of the target language is determined, up to a point, by the learners, and the topics relate to the learners' personal interests. Taylor (1992:3-4) identifies and later defines the most often involved steps in LEA as:

- choosing the experience or stimulus;
- organising the activity;
- conducting the experience;
- discussing the experience;
- developing a written account;
- reading the account; and
- extending the experience.

Research has shown that adult learners often experience emotional barriers such as anxiety, frustration, and alienation in language learning classrooms (Kosch & Terrell, 1991; Young, 1991, 1992). Counselling-Learning/Community Language Learning Curran, (1976) recognises the need for reducing anxiety in adult language learning process by creating a learning situation that is characterised by (i) a supportive and nurturing environment created by both teacher and peer group; (ii) a non-judgmental attitude on the part of the teacher; (iii) group/peer support and a sense of community; (iv) activities that relate personally to learners and encourage ownership and responsibility in the language learning process; and (v) cooperative activities that facilitate group as well as individual achievement. It is a learner-centred approach. Counselling-Learning/Community Language Learning uses various activities such as student-generated conversations, tape recordings of these conversations, and transcriptions which are then used for additional study. Research has indicated that the CLL experience helps in the mitigation of learners' anxiety, enhances learners' motivation and changes learners' attitudes toward the target language (Saminy & Rardin, 1994).

2. Centrality of The Language Teacher

The language teacher must possess all the qualities that characterise a good teacher, as well as being proficient in the target language (Rosenbusch, 1991). In the case of adult teaching, things are somehow different. Adults are self-motivated, interested, and usually eager to participate in the teaching-learning process. Therefore, the teacher of the adult is a role-model in a different way in that he/she is able to communicate as an adult to adult, where the adult students are looking to get the most benefit from the teacher. A point that is stressed from Draves (1984:17):

" One must meet three requirements before being able to teach adults:

- a love for your subject;
- a desire to share it; and
- a basic competence in the subject.

...If you have a basic competence and are honest about your skills and experience in describing the course, by all means teach".

Combs, Blume, Newman & Wass (1974), in discussing what characterises a good teacher, argue that because teachers are individuals and teaching is an art, it is impossible to isolate universal traits of good teachers. They say (p.21), "Whether an individual will be an effective teacher depends fundamentally on the nature of his private world of perceptions". Combs et al. (1974:22-27) believe that the following perceptions about (i) his/her subject, (ii) people, (iii) himself/herself, (iv) the purpose and process of learning, and (v) the appropriate methods of teaching are crucial for a good teacher:

- he/she is well informed about the subject matter he/she is responsible, and is able to transmit what he/she knows;
- he/she seems sensitive to and concerned with how things seem to others with whom he/she interacts;
- he/she is concerned with people and their reactions;
- he/she is sensitive to how things seem to people;
- he seeks the causes of people's behaviour in their current thinking, feeling, beliefs, and understandings;
- he/she has the willingness and is able to enter into relationships with students and colleagues;
- he/she sees himself/herself in essentially positive ways, and perceives himself/herself and his/her world accurately and realistically;
- he/she helps all students become the best they can; and
- he/she has a stock of teaching methods, to call them upon as needed to deal with different situations, problems, and student populations;

Draves (1984), referring to adult teaching, adds to the above list the following skills that teachers should have or develop:

- listening skills because much learning takes place when the learner is expressing an idea or trying to convey a message, particularly in language

learning, the teacher by some sort of acknowledgment should listen and encourage the student to speak.

- being able to help learners who lack confidence by creating a safe and secure learning environment for these people;
- being able to handle situations in which the learner is doing something wrong, or when things go wrong, without embarrassing learner(s); and
- a good sense of humour.

Hoyle (1969) stated that the teacher has two roles to fulfil within the classroom. One that corresponds with the functions of instruction, socialisation, and evaluation, and a second one that is concerned with motivating students, maintaining control, and creating an environment for learning. The central role of the teacher in the process of second-language learning is emphasised by Dulay, Burt, & Krashen (1982). They say (p. 3) "Learning a second language can be exciting and productive or painful and useless...The difference lies in how one goes about learning the new language and how a teacher goes about teaching it".

One important factor which teachers of language must keep in mind relates to the difference between bilingualism and monolingualism in childhood and adolescence. For many children the need to learn another language does not begin in the home and the teacher has the heavy responsibility to begin to introduce the second language in a way which leads to the language being embraced by the learner. "Teaching a second language means creating for students a part or all of their new language environment. The entire responsibility for creating the language environment falls on the teacher who is teaching a language that is not used in the community" (Dulay et al., 1982:14) . In many ways for the mono-lingual learner, it is an artificial situation for it generally is language divorced from a living (and experiencing) culture. "It is the learners home language that carries the cultural expectations of the home and community. The second language, in the early years, does not necessarily carry this same degree of cultural importance" (Bodrova & Leong, 1996:95).

Bilingualism, on the other hand, is where the child grows up living and learning in two languages. They might acquire normal native ability in the language of their surrounding native community and good to very good ability in their second language, depending on their exposure to it. Obviously the more the child/learner is exposed the better speaker of the language he/she becomes and is more able to understand it and work in it (Berk, 1997).

The way the learner learns the new language is highly individualistic. The language that learners hear and see around them is of paramount importance to success in learning a new language. Zais (1976) puts the point clearly that the effectiveness of a student's learning is highly contingent upon the relevance (to the learner) of what is meant to be learnt and how the teacher presents this material. He said (p. 350):

> "Good intentions, fine goals and objectives, excellent content, flawless evaluation procedures, then, are all for nought if the learning activities in which

students engage do not provide them with experience whose consequences are educational."

In this context the "learning activities" are those opportunities, strategies, methods, experiences the teacher uses to facilitate learning within a student. It is how the teacher impacts content and provides opportunities for learners to acquire that content (Print, 1993). The effective teacher is one who has a repertoire of teaching-learning strategies and who realises and appreciates that no single method is superior to another in all learning situations.

Print (1993:167) states and later defines the most common teaching-learning strategies used by teachers as:

- Expository teaching
- Interactive teaching
- Small group teaching/discussion
- Inquiry teaching/problem solving
- Individualisation
- Models of reality (ie. real life situations).

Dulay et al. (1982), after reviewing and presenting the research findings from a large enough number of studies from 1966 up to 1982 regarding second

language acquisition, suggest the following teaching guidelines:

- maximise the student's exposure to natural communication where the learner is focused on the message being conveyed and not on the linguistic form of that message;
- incorporate a silent phase at the beginning of the instructional program during which learners listen and watch, and perhaps respond in their native language;
- use concrete references to make the new language understandable to beginning students;
- devise specific techniques to relax students and protect their egos;
- include some time for formal grammar lessons for adults;
- learn the motivations of your students and incorporate this knowledge into your lessons;
- create an atmosphere where students are not embarrassed by their errors;
- if you teach dialogues, include current and socially useful phrases;
- certain structures tend to be learned before others. Do not expect students to learn "late structures" early; and
- do not refer to student's native language when teaching the second language.

(Dulay et al., 1982:263-269)

For the benefit of this Project some elaboration on Individualisation as a method of teaching will assist in appreciating that whilst the "centrality of the teacher" is important this does not mean that the teacher is the dominant person in the teaching-learning dyad.

Print (1993:174) says that the "... essential features of individualised learning are that the learners complete tasks appropriate to their ability level and proceed with this learning at their own pace. The focus of responsibility for learning changes from the teacher to the learner and considerable learning is undertaken independently of others". He later (p. 175) adds: "The advantages of individualisation as a teaching-learning strategy are vested almost entirely with the learner. Student learning is powerful where individualisation is perceived as a personal resolution of interesting problems".

Such a teaching-learning method is appropriate for language learning at all levels - school-based and adult (non-formal)-based.

3. Management of Second Language Programs

Second language programs are dynamic processes, not static objects. To be managed effectively and efficiently the administration of the organisation has to be extremely cautious in (i) using the organisation's finances, (ii) selecting and developing a program model, (iii) planning a program, (iv) initiating the planning process, (v) designing the program, and (vi) implementing and evaluating the program (Rosenbusch, 1991). Literature relevant with these aspects is reviewed in the following lines.

School budgets are limited, thus the wise use of school finances to enhance student learning is imperative. Hanushek (1986) in a comprehensive review of research literature regarding the effects of teachers' experience, teachers' education, teacher/pupil ratio, teachers' salary, and expenditures per student in student achievement, concludes that (a) only teachers' experience correlates positively with student performance; (b) there is a positive correlation between school expenditures and pupil achievement, but the strength of this relationship disappears when differences in family background are controlled; and (c) small classes might be very beneficial in certain circumstances, depending on the teachers and the subject matter. Ferguson (1991), using a large sample found that (a) reducing the number of student per teacher improves student outcomes where the ratio exceeds 23 to 1; (b) there is a strong and positive correlation between teachers' literacy skills and students' performance; and (c) teachers' experience increases students' performance. Kazal-Thresher (1993) drawing on the work of Ferguson (1991) suggests that schools should speed up the process of learning for new teachers by linking them with experienced teachers in the classroom, educational organisations should retain experienced teachers and hire more teachers when the student-teacher ratio exceeds 23 to 1, and to hire teachers with strong literacy skills. Oswald (1995) argues that school expenditures should target improved student outcomes by streamlining administration and support-service costs, and by ensuring that sufficient funds are allocated to the classroom to improve learning.

The decision which type of language program will be adopted in a particular organisation is a matter of the (a) stated objectives and goals of the organisation in foreign language teaching, (b) the staff and funds available, and (c) the needs of the organisation's clientele in the target language. Gibbons (1994), in accordance with the proficiency movement in foreign language teaching (learners should be able to use the target language in a meaningful and purposeful way), advocates the adoption of an in-depth approach to foreign language teaching which focuses on a single second language instead of a breath approach which introduces a range of foreign languages to students. He also suggests that the administration has to regard second language as a mainstream subject within the curriculum and once introduced is to be maintained throughout the student's term
at schooling, giving opportunities to students and teachers to visit a destination where the target language is spoken.

Johnston and Peterson (1994) suggest an overall approach to the management of language programs, as shown in the program matrix (see Appendix 1). Their framework may be used for designing, implementing, evaluating, revising, describing, comparing and contrasting different programs. The matrix is intended to show how the various elements (people involved, what is taught, provision and organisation of materials and equipment) and processes (planning, implementation and revision) fit together to form a whole. They also suggest the use of the completed stakeholders' diagram (Appendix 2) together with the matrix to decide what sorts of goals and changes are and are not realistically possible.

Educational institutions that are planning foreign language programs need to be well informed about the factors that constitute a threat to the success of the proposed program. According to Rosenbusch (1995) such factors include (a) lack of teachers with sufficient language skills and qualifications to teach the foreign language, (b) programs inadequate in design and without the necessary funding, (c) inappropriate or unrealistic goals, (d) lack of coordination and articulation across levels of instruction, (e) inappropriate teaching methodologies for the students, (f) inadequate and insufficient instructional materials, and (g) lack of evaluation procedures for students, teachers, and the program. Heining-Boynton (1990) suggests a thorough investigation of what was done in the past and adds two more factors to those previously mentioned: lack of homework, and lack of parental support in the case of school-based programs. He also advises educational institutions that offer foreign language programs or plan to offer such programs to use a checklist (see Appendix 3) based on all the above mentioned factors as a mean of self-evaluation.

Rosenbusch (1991) and Curtain & Pesola (1994) suggest that when an educational institution has made the decision to offer foreign language program(s) it should identify a steering committee composed of all those who have a stake in the implementation of the program to lead the process. The tasks that such a committee must complete include (a) examining the advantages and limitations of each program model by reading the professional literature, consulting with language professionals, and visiting existing programs; (b) exploring school foreign

language curricula and teaching strategies; (c) exploring school, parent, business, and community support for a school foreign language program; (d) informing teachers, administrators, parents, and the community about the rationale for foreign language programs, strategies of teaching foreign languages, and program models and outcomes; and (e) determining the most promising program model for the local situation.

In designing a foreign language program it must reflect an underlying philosophy and have clearly stated goals and objectives which are integral to the process of implementing the program. The importance of starting with a philosophical statement is reinforced by Curtin & Pesola (1994:255) who state "...the statement of philosophy is the staring point for program planning and will shape many of the responses to the planning considerations". In addition, staffing, curriculum design, scheduling, budgeting, articulation, language choice, student accessibility, coordination, and evaluation must be considered with special care (Curtin & Pesola, 1994; Met, 1985; Met, 1989; Rosenbusch, 1991). According to Rosenbusch (1991) the organisation's mission statement must reflect the importance of foreign language education.

The range of potential outcomes of the different language programs could include, at one end, simply exposing students to foreign language study to motivate them to study further, and at other end, a program in which functional proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing is the goal (see Appendix 4). By determining the expected educational outcomes of the program, the organisation decides which type of program to offer. Curtin & Pesola (1994), Met (1985) and Rosenbusch (1991) argue that the community in which the language program is being planned will have a strong influence on the goals that are chosen, and that is vitally important to set realistic program goals and to communicate them to parents, teachers, administrators, the school board, and the community.

The clientele of community-based programs may include intellectuals, pensioners, unemployed young people, migrants, white-collar workers, technicians or managers. They come to such programs voluntary, ready to learn, and with a limited time framework. Their motives may include (a) a desire to travel or study abroad; (b) a desire to refine their knowledge for personal or professional reasons, perhaps related to career ambitions; (c) an immediate or short-term need to be able to handle situations in which knowledge of another language is virtually indispensable; (d) the establishment of an important business contract; (e) pending marriage (or planned marriage) to a foreigner; and (f) a need to cope with their new environment (migrants). For all the above mentioned factors the organisation's administration and teachers should relate the program's goals to customers needs and experiences, and negotiate them with learners. Otherwise, the program's success is at stake. Customers experience disappointment, and waste their time, energy and money (Van Deth, 1983; Draves, 1984).

Once an organisation has selected appropriate program models for language study, a number of implementation issues must be considered, including staffing, curriculum designing, scheduling, and language choice.

Staffing. The most important factor in determining the success of a language program, according to Curtin and Pesola (1994), is the choice of teachers including a program coordinator dedicated to maintaining a strong program of excellent quality. Scarino et al. (1988a, 1988b), acknowledging the importance of competent foreign language teachers, emphasise, encourage and support their ongoing professional development to stay up-to-date on current issues related to the teaching of foreign languages. Peyton (1997) and Rosenbusch (1991), advocate the importance of skilled foreign language teachers in maintaining strong and successful foreign language programs. They highlight the need that foreign language teachers, besides competence in the areas of general education and interpersonal skills, must possess a high level of language proficiency in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. In immersion programs they must have near-native fluency in the target language. Guntermann (1992) suggests that foreign language teachers, prior to their employment by institutions, should submit evidence of their expertise through Simulated Oral Proficiency Interviews (SOPI), which are semi-direct speaking tests used to assess general speaking proficiency in a second language, developed and published in several languages by the Centre for Applied Linguistics (CAL).

Curriculum Designing. According to Curtin and Pesola (1994) and Rosenbusch (1991) there are three pathways in designing the curriculum: (a) adopting curriculum which may be selected among available commercial materials or from curriculum materials developed by other programs, ensuring its age appropriateness, its compatibility with the philosophy and goals of the local program, and not be outdated; (b) adapting and modifying commercially prepared curricula or developed by another program which will fit the local situation; and (c) writing a new curriculum starting from the very beginning.

Scarino et al. (1988c:31) suggest nine procedures for syllabus development :

- Determine the appropriate stage for the learner group.
- Write a statement on the broad goals of language learning.
- Determine specific goals for the particular language and the particular learner group.
- Plan objectives derived from the specific goals and objectives.
- Suggest appropriate organisational focus(es).
- Suggest activities to meet the specific goals and objectives.
- Compile checklists of specific content to assist teachers to develop additional activities and exercises.
- Check the range of planned language use.
- Develop a general statement on method, resources, assessment, and evaluation.

They do so by taking into consideration the factors that are related to the context within which the curriculum is to be written, and the underlying philosophy of learning (see Appendix 7).

Another factor that has to be considered is the sex differences in reading habits, interests and prior Knowledge. Bugel and Buunk (1996) in their study that involved 2,980 high school students in the Netherlands, found that the weaker performance of girls in the foreign language classroom was due to the fact that the majority of topics were of male interest.

Scheduling. Management has to decide the time that will allocate for the instruction of the target language. Both research and experimental data (Met & Rhodes, 1990) suggest that the amount of time spent on language learning and the intensity of the experience have significant effects on the acquisition of the target language. The minimum amount of time for an elementary school foreign language class according to Rosenbusch (1995) is seventy-five minutes per week, scheduled no less often than every other day. For FLES French programs in Canada, forty minutes per day is a recommended standard (Curtin & Pesola, 1994). Met & Rhodes (1990) and Curtin & Pesola (1994) suggest that foreign language instruction should be scheduled daily and for no less than thirty minutes. Irmsher (1996) advocates the use of block scheduling for foreign language classes to allow for a more flexible and productive classroom environment, along with more opportunities for using varied and interactive methods. For Scarino et al. (1988a) schedules of ninety minutes per week in primary schools for a minimum of four years, two hundred minutes per week in junior secondary schools for a minimum of three years, rising to two hundred and eighty minutes per week in Year Twelve appear to be reasonably adequate.

Language choice. The decision as to which language(s) to offer is mandated by political, social, and economic factors (Met, 1989). The Australian Language and Literacy Policy (ALLP) for the 1990s makes this point clear by stating: "The objective of the schools component is to ensure that all Australian school children have access to the study of Asian languages by the year 2000; and the study of Asia becomes part of the core program in Australian schools by 1995" (Dawkins, 1991:64). In the subsequent chapters the ALLP identifies Aboriginal languages, Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Greek, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Russian, Spanish, Thai and Vietnamese as priority languages and invites educational institutions (formal and non-formal) to select for instruction up to eight of those languages, according to their own local and regional needs, aspirations, and priorities. The ALLP ensures that the Commonwealth will provide funding to educational institutions to support the above mentioned languages.

The status of a language within a community affects the decision whether or not this particular language will be favoured or not. The status of a language is conditioned by its economic and trade significance and by the attitudes of the society toward this language and its native speakers (Brosh, 1993). The following response from an Israeli student regarding his performance in Arabic, summarises

the importance of the status of a language in choosing languages for instruction: "In Arabic I also have an A, though it is of no importance" (Brosh, 1993:354). In this case Arabic is a language that is strongly connected with political and racial tensions between Arabs and Israelis.

Other factors that have to be considered include availability of human and material resources, potentiality for articulation, and the pressures from the members of different ethnic groups (Met, 1989; Rosenbusch, 1991; Curtin & Pesola, 1994). The Lo Bianco report (1987:144) stresses the importance of these factors by concluding: "Language choice needs to be informed by the factors described above: the school level priorities, the linguistic nature of the school population, the preferences of the parents, the level of probability of guaranteed continuity and adequate support and resourcing for the program (particularly staffing), the existence and strength of informal learning environments and the languages of wider teaching".

Articulation. For the benefit of this Project some elaboration on articulation is needed. Lack of articulation contributed to the decline of foreign language programs during the seventies and mid-eighties in the U.S.A. (Heining-Boynton, 1991; Curtin & Pesola, 1994). Articulation from primary school to high school levels is one key factor in the success of foreign language programs (Met & Rhodes 1990; Rosenbusch, 1991; Curtin & Pesola, 1994). According to Byrnes (1990) articulation in foreign language programs is strongly related with (a) the need for learners with high levels of language competency in an increasingly competitive global market place; (b) accountability in foreign language education; and (c) optimum instruction. Well-articulated programs can become reality when there is an ongoing coordination and communication among teachers and administrators from all levels of education (Wilson, 1988; Byrnes, 1990; Curtin & Pesola, 1994); and when there is a provision of tracking - learners who completed a sequence of instruction are grouped separately (Byrnes, 1990; Met, 1990; Curtin & Pesola 1994).

Program evaluation. It is a concern both separate from and related to the development of classroom testing measures. A point stressed by Curtin & Pesola (1994:219) "Program evaluation provides evidence that program goals are met. Classroom achievement testing may provide one component of this evidence". Program evaluation helps understand whether a program is functioning in reality as was envisioned, and it ensures program quality. "...program evaluation can identify problems, but it can also solve problems, provide ongoing information, and verify and substantiate successes" (Heining-Boynton, 1991:193). Rosenbusch (1991) suggests the use of the curriculum document itself, direct classroom observations, reviews of students' outcomes, examination of material resources, and interviews with teachers, students, administrators and in the case of school-based programs with parents, as major sources of information which can be used in program evaluation.

Curtin & Pesola (1994:275) argue that the program evaluation may include the following types of assessment:

- Student language-skills performance
- Student attitudes toward other languages and cultures
- Student attitudes toward the course
- Student performance in other content areas
- Teacher performance checklists
- Teacher evaluation of program
- Parent attitudes
- Outside consultant observation
- Teacher-peer observation and review
- Administrator observation and review

Heining-Boynton (1991) developed five instruments to evaluate foreign language programs. He took into consideration factors that contributed to the decline of foreign language programs in the past (lack of qualified teachers, unrealistic goals, lack of homework and evaluation, lack of articulation, lack of parental support, and inappropriate pedagogy) and contemporary issues (foreign language teacher acceptance by colleagues, workload, the at-risk student, and scheduling competition with other areas). His instruments are administered to language teachers, Principals/Administrators, classroom or other content area teachers, students, and parents. They can be easily adapted to local situations. Two of Heining-Boynton's instruments, for language teachers and Principals/Administrators, appear at Appendices 11 and 12 respectively.

4. Climate & Culture of The Educational Institution

Organisational culture is defined by Bailey, Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1991:79) as " A system of shared values (what is important) and beliefs (how things work) that create behavioural norms (the way we do things here) to guide the activities of organisation members". According to Dale (1972:20) school culture is defined as "The group perceptions (patterns of thought and action which have grown up in response to a specific set of institutional pressures and serve as a solution to the problems those pressures create) of the various participants (students, teachers, management, government, parents, community) in the educational institution situation". Robbins and Barnwell (1994:375-376) argue that the essence of an organisational culture is characterised by ten key characteristics.

- The degree of responsibility, freedom and independence that members have.
- The degree to which members are encouraged to be innovative and risk-seeking.
- The degree to which the organisation creates clear objectives and performance expectations.
- The degree of co-ordination within the different units of the organisation.
- The degree of management support.

- The number of rules and regulations and the amount of direct supervision that are used to control member behaviour.
- The degree to which members identify with the organisation as whole rather than with their particular group or field of professional expertise.
- The reward system.
- The degree to which organisational communications are restricted to the formal hierarchy of authority.
- The degree of conflict tolerance.

Strong organisational cultures correlate strongly with increased student achievement and motivation, and with teacher productivity and satisfaction (Stolp, 1994).

Bailey et al. (1991) argue that strong cultures are characterised by six elements.
- A widely share philosophy which is a real understanding of what the organisation stands for.
- A concern for individuals.
- A recognition for heroes whose actions illustrate the shared philosophy of the organisation.
- A belief that rituals and ceremonies are important to members and to building a common identity.
- A well-understood sense of the informal rules and expectations.
- A belief that what members do is important to others.

Fyans and Maehr (1990) looked at the effects of five dimensions of school culture: academic challenges, comparative achievement, recognition for achievement, school community, and perception of school goals. In a survey of 16,310 fourth, sixth, eighth, and tenth-grade students from 820 public schools in Illinois, they found support for the proposition that students are motivated to learn in schools with strong cultures.

Cheng (1993) found stronger school cultures had better motivated teachers. In an environment with strong organisational ideology, shared participation, charismatic leadership, and intimacy, teachers experienced higher job satisfaction and increased productivity.

The administration of the educational organisation (formal and non-formal) is responsible for creating a climate where everybody is working towards the accomplishment of common goals and purposes and for fostering a culture of community within the organisation. A strong sense of community in the schools has benefits for both staff members and students and provides a necessary foundation for school improvement. For Bryk and Driscoll (1988), the communally organised school is characterised by (a) a system of shared values related to the school and to education in general; (b) a set of common activities that link school members to each other and to the school's traditions; and (c) an ethos of caring in interpersonal relations, evidenced by collegial interactions among staff members and an extended role for teachers that encompasses more than classroom instruction.

They found that in communally organised schools staff morale is higher, teacher absenteeism is lower, teachers are more satisfied with their work, students showed more interest in academics and greater achievements gains, and communally organised schools had fewer problems with student misbehaviour.

Rossi and Royal (1997) argue that schools that function as communities are characterised by open communication, widespread participation, teamwork, a common sense of purpose, and a common set of values. O'Donoghue and Dimmock (1997) in their study explained why some Principals are more successful than others at improving teaching and learning in their schools. They stressed the importance of a school principal with vision who also has a strong sense of how important this is. Alison, the Principal under study, had engaged her school staff in whole-day activities, developed a school vision based on student outcomes statements, and created planning time for the staff to make significant changes to teaching and learning. Furthermore, they emphasised the responsibility of the Principal to inform teachers of the latest research findings in education, particularly those which relate to improving teaching and learning.

The management of the school or the community-based organisation should concentrate on strengthening teachers' morale and creating a stress-free working environment. Why is teachers' morale important and how can administrators influence teachers' morale? Miller (1981) argues that raising teachers' morale is not only making teaching more pleasant for teachers, but also learning more pleasant for the students. Mendel (1987) notes that the morale of teachers can have implications for student learning, the health of the organisation and the health of the teacher. Maehr, Midgley and Urban (1996) cited in Lumsden (1998) argue that people are more personally invested in their work when (a) they have a voice in what happens to them, and (b) their work has a meaning and significance in contributing to a higher purpose or goal. Blase and Kirby (1992) note that Principals can strengthen teachers morale by actively standing behind teachers, involving them in decisions about policies and practices, acknowledging their expertise, assist teachers with student discipline matters, allow teachers to develop discipline codes, and support teachers' authority in enforcing policy.

Lumsden (1998), reviewing a number of studies concerning teachers morale and the last report on job satisfaction among American teachers, stresses the importance of the following factors in relation to teachers' high morale: (a) more administrative support and leadership; (b) good student behaviour; (c) student responsiveness and enthusiasm; (d) positive school atmosphere; (e) teacher autonomy; and (f) parental support.

Stress also affects morale. It can result in emotional and physical fatigue and a reduction in work motivation, involvement, and satisfaction. Kyriacou (1987) notes that the administration of the organisation should be concerned with teacher stress (a) as a general concern to improve the quality of teachers' working lives, (b) because prolonged occupational stress can lead to both mental and physical ill-health, and (c) stress and burnout may significantly impair the relationship a

teacher has with his/her students and the quality of teaching and the commitment he/she is able to display. Markham, Green and Ross (1996) identified as major sources of stress the daily organisational problems, the student misconduct, and poor relationships with colleagues and administrators. Their findings support the notion that second languages teachers experience greater stress than regular teachers because they have to prepare their students to do well outside the classroom. Currie and Rotatori (1987) emphasise the lack of administrative support as a factor that distinguishes teachers who were classified as experiencing high stress from teachers who were classified as experiencing low stress. Punch and Tuetteman (1996) found that while inadequate access to facilities, intrusion of school work into out-of-hours time, student misbehaviour and excessive societal expectations promote levels of teacher distress, the build up of stress can be reduced or countered by supportive relationships within the work environment, and by teachers receiving acknowledgment of the work they do. Their findings suggest that school administrators can counter the increasing stress that teachers are under by fostering a supportive climate among them, including promoting principal's support for teachers, and by ensuring appropriate levels of praise and recognition. A school environment in which teachers' work is supported and valued, can do a great deal to alleviate the effects of stress.

Research indicates that in order to create a school culture and climate which both motivate students in acquiring the target language, (a) school administrators should regard language learning as an academic subject, like science and mathematics; and (b) teachers and administrators should create meaningful cultural experiences in their classrooms and schools for students (Day, 1987; Ralph, 1989; Dodick, 1996). Student exchanges, invitations to persons from the target language group to come in and speak to the class, celebrations of holidays and traditions of the culture of the target language group, fraternisation with a school in another country where the target language is spoken, decoration of the class or the whole school with as many as possible culture related displays of the target language, are only some activities and initiatives that promote a language culture within the educational institution (Genese, Rogers, & Holobow, 1983; Dodick, 1996).

Summary

From the literature reviewed it would appear that for any program of second language learning to be successful, certain factors/elements are crucial. These factors/elements relate to the four major components raised at the beginning of this chapter, namely:

1. an appropriate theoretical framework for second-language learning;
2. the central role of the language teacher in the process of teaching and learning another language;
3. the discretion that management has to show in selecting and developing a program; and
4. the importance of a healthy organisational climate and a strong organisational culture in motivating students and teachers towards the accomplishment of the organisational goals.

These vitally important factors/elements are the following:

- Any program must have a sound theoretical base.
- The language teachers must be well educated, have the essential competencies required of a teacher including proficiency (fluency) in the language being taught.
- Schools or institutions must carefully initiate a planning process involving all those that have a stake at the program to identify the threats to the program, the opportunities that the local situation offers to the program, and the needs of their clientele.
- The program must set realistic goals and objectives based on learners' needs, and have them clearly stated.
- Networking of language teachers in district, state or even national level.
- Language teachers must be given opportunities for professional development and meaningful and purposeful in-service education and training.
- Linking the organisation with remote databases experts in the field of language teaching and learning for immediate consultation and information.
- Evaluation of the program has to be regarded as an integral part of it.
- There has to be a healthy, collaborative climate developed among the teaching staff, the administration, the students and the community.

CHAPTER THREE

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

Introduction

In Chapter Two a number of essential elements for successful language learning and teaching were gleaned from relevant and current literature.

These essential elements further raise a number of questions which need to be considered and resolved when comparing what should be happening with what is happening. For the purposes of this study which aims to identify the issues that determine the success and effectiveness of second-language programs the following questions need resolution:

- Under what conditions the entire class period should be devoted to meaningful communicative activities?
- What strategies have to be employed to maximise learners' exposure to natural communication?
- How does management determine the viability of the language program within the institution?
- How does management help language teachers remain up to date with their subject?
- How does management promote an organisational culture that appreciates and fosters language learning?
- How does management maximise language teachers personal investment in their work?

Methodology

For this Project, empirical evidence was necessary to compare the ideal situation in second-language learning and teaching that the literature reviewed described, with what is happening in reality, and to identify reasons for a possible discrepancy between theory and practice

The instrument. Structured personal interviews composed of open-ended questions were used to obtain more information about teachers' views regarding the questions raised earlier on this Project. In accordance with Tuckman's (1978) assertion that all participants in human research have the right to remain anonymous, and that by ensuring anonymity would, firstly, encourage the subjects to respond, and secondly, promote truthful responses, the right to confidentiality was respected.

The questions that guided the structured interviews appear below and were influenced by two questionnaires developed by the Centre for Language Education and Research, Centre for Applied Linguistics, Washington D.C. and which were

administered at 1,416 elementary and 1,349 secondary schools (Rhodes & Oxford, 1998).

Questions for structured interviews:

1. Personal Data:

Name (optional):_____, Age (optional):_____ ,

Language that I teach:_____, Years of experience: ____,

Kind of organisation where I am employed at:

Primary School ❑ Secondary School ❑ Community Based Organisation ❑

2. What are your qualifications regarding the target language?

- Native speaker of the target language ❑
- Target language group origin and qualified teacher ❑
- Qualified teacher with a special interest in the target language ❑
- Target language specialist teacher ❑
- Native speaker of the target language and qualified teacher ❑
- Other (please explain):_____

_____.

3. For what tasks would a class size of 15 to 20 students be ideal?
4. For what tasks would a class size of 20 to 25 students would be ideal?
5. Have you ever taught in a class with more than 25 students?

No ❑

Yes ❑⬇

What was your experience?

6.

a) What proportion of the lesson do you devote to real life communicative activities based on learners' needs?

b) What proportion of the lesson do you devote to drill-and-practice exercises?

c) How important is the assignment of homework to students and why?

7. How often do you use English as a means of instruction?
8. Describe the extra-curricular activities (ie. watching theatre performances of the target language group) that you and your students attended or were involved in during the last 12 months.
9. Based on your experience and expertise, what do you believe should be done to improve second-language programs?
10. Based on your experience and expertise, which should be the goals of second-language programs? How would you rank them in importance?
11. What is your view regarding articulation?
12. Are there any evaluation procedures regarding the second-language program(s) in your organisation? What sources of information do you use to evaluate your program? What is the role of management in the process?
13. How important is it to you to work in a stress-free work environment where management recognises your work and efforts by some sort of acknowledgment and why?
14. How does this recognition affect your work?
15. On a rating scale from 1 to 10 with 1 the lowest how do you judge fellowship, collective spirit in your organisation?

16. On a rating scale from 1 to 10 with 1 the lowest how do you judge group cohesion - as second-language teachers - in your organisation?
17. What kind of influence do you have in the decision-making process regarding the second-language program of your organisation?
18. Based on your answers to questions 15, 16, and 17, how do these affect the quality of second-language program(s) in your organisation?
19. What professional development opportunities has management offered you during the last 12 months? Who organised the professional development?
20. What kinds of professional development are more appropriate and effective for language teachers?
21. Which element(s) of professional development do you see to be most important in for language teachers and why?
22. How do you see management facilitating your work in second-language teaching? What do you think is the most important task for management?
23. What do you personally feel are the most important problems, regarding second-language programs, that the management of your organisation should try to take care of?
24.
a) On a rating scale from 1 to 10 with 1 the lowest how do you judge the second-language program of your organisation in terms of success and effectiveness?
b) Why do you make this rating?

The sample. For this particular Project only State primary and secondary schools and community based organisations in Adelaide were included. A letter was mailed to each of the organisations selected explaining the purpose of the Project and soliciting for their co-operation. The letter to organisations appears in the Appendix 13. Of the twelve organisations approached eight of them agreed to participate giving a response rate of 66.66 per cent. The teachers who agreed to be interviewed were two French teachers and seven Greek teachers. Four of the teachers were employed at community based organisations, two of them were primary school teachers, and the other three were secondary school teachers.

Five of the second-language teachers (55.55%) who were interviewed were native speakers of the target language and qualified teachers, two of them (22.22%) were only native speakers of the target language, and two of them (22.22%) were qualified teachers who were coming from the target language group origin (their grandmothers and grandfathers were born and grew up in the country where the target language is spoken, before they migrated to Australia).

The size of the sample chosen did not permit any clear cut answers to the questions posed but only indications. A sample bigger than the chosen one would provide a much clearer view of the problem under investigation. However, a bigger sample would require some sort of statistical treatment, which was not possible to be included due to length limitations posed on this Project.

Conducting the interviews. Organisations initially were approached by a letter to determine if they were willing to co-operate with the Project. A copy of the interview questions was mailed to teachers who were willing to be interviewed. The

interviews were carried-out in the organisations where the interviewees were employed and lasted for approximately one and a half hours.

The identity of the organisations has remained confidential.

Administrating the questions for the structured interviews. The interviewer made notes while the interviewee was responding. After each question was answered the interviewer read the notes back to the interviewee to make sure that the notes taken down described precisely his/her view.

The transcripts of the interviews appear in the Appendix 14.

Summary

This study was designed to obtain the views of second-language teachers regarding the goals of second-language programs, within class and out of class activities, the climate of the organisation, and how management may help second-language teachers to offer quality programs..

The structured interview was chosen as the basic research design. The respondents were selected from state primary and secondary schools and community based organisations which offered second-language programs in Adelaide .

The interview included questions related to (i) details of personal background, (ii) class size, (iii) teachers' practice, (iv) program evaluation and articulation, (v) organisational climate , and (vi) managerial assistance .

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Introduction

In this chapter, the data which were collected through the interviews are presented and discussed. Where it is possible and depending on the nature of the data, percentages are given for comparison purposes.

Summarising The Responses

1. For what tasks would a class size of 15 to 20 students be ideal?
All the teachers who were teaching adults agreed that the ideal class size to teach adults was fifteen students. According to them, having more than fifteen students made it impossible to engage all the students in the activities that they considered as ideal. All of them stressed as ideal activities for such a class size those that aimed at making students speak in the target language (free conversation and oral interaction).

The secondary school second-language teachers pointed out that when the class had more than fifteen students there was a great possibility that there would be different ability levels within the class, a fact that limited the activities with which they could engage their students. The activities that these teachers considered as ideal for such a class size aimed at encouraging the students to express themselves orally in the target language.

None of the primary school second-language teachers taught in such a class size. The activities that they considered as ideal were role plays, dramatisations and conversations.

2. For what tasks a class size of 20 to 25 students would be ideal?
None of the adult second-language teachers considered a class with 20 to 25 students ideal for teaching and learning a second-language. The following quotations from their responses successfully summarise their views.

"It is like a lecture. I do all the speaking."

"You can't do anything at all."

The secondary school second-language teachers considered classes with 20 to 25 students as not ideal because of the likelihood they would have to teach a very mixed ability group of students. The tasks that they would have to assign to their students would be very structured (grammar, vocabulary, and repetition of oral phrases).

The primary school second-language teachers considered the actual classroom space and the noise level as the two main factors which limited their choices. The tasks which they recommended were non-creative and very structured.

3. Have you ever taught in a class with more than 25 students? If you have, what was your experience?
From the nine teachers interviewed eight of them (88.88%) experienced teaching in a class with more than 25 students. The following quotations from their responses are characteristic of their experience.
"...the students were frustrated and they felt overwhelmed."
"It was very stressful."
"At the end of the day I was more dead than alive."

Three teachers (33.33%) currently teach to groups with more than 25 students.

4.
a) What proportion of the lesson do you devote to real life communicative activities based on learners' needs?
The teachers spend a proportion of the lesson time on real life communicative activities based on learners' needs ranging from 10 per cent up to 75 per cent. The factors that affected the proportion of the lesson time spent on such activities were the make-up of the class and the size of the class.

The more advanced the class the more time was spent on such activities. The more heterogenous the group the less time was spent. The bigger the class size was the less time spent.

In the case of adult classes an extra factor was the nature of the course.

b) What proportion of the lesson do you devote to drill-and-practice exercises?
The proportion of the time spent on drill-and-practice exercises ranged from 10 per cent up to 70 per cent. Factors that affected the proportion of the time spent on drill-and-practice exercises were (i) the nature of the course (intensive and with strictly set goals), (ii) the nature of the lesson (grammar structures, syntax, pronunciation, revision), and (iii) the make-up and the size of the class.

One teacher (11.11%) responded that he devoted most of the teaching time to drill-and-practice exercises independently of the nature of the lesson and the make-up of the class.
c) How important is the assignment of homework to students and why?
All the teachers interviewed emphasised the importance of homework to students for the following reasons:

- the time allocated to second-language teaching and learning in the classroom was insufficient;
- there is minimum contact with the target language between the lessons;
- constant practice is needed for learning a second-language;
- finishing unfinished work;

- to improve their skills in the target language; and
- to make students more responsible for their progress.

5. How often do you use English as a means of instruction?
While teachers tried to deliver the lessons in the target language most of them tended to use English very often. One teacher (11.11%) consciously avoided using English and another one (11.11%) tried to correct her ways and use the target language more often. The reasons that made teachers often use English as a means of instruction were (i) the students' ability level, (ii) the existence of different ability levels within a class, (iii) the nature of the lessons' content (ie. grammar, syntax, complex vocabulary and concepts), and (iv) their fear that students may experience frustration and that they may end up loosing them.

6. Describe the extra-curricular activities (ie. watching theatre performances of the target language group) that you and your students attended or were involved in during the last 12 months.
All of the teachers who were interviewed involved their students in some kind of extra-curricular activities. The extra-curricular activities which came up more often were dining in restaurants, involving students in festivals, and visiting art exhibitions of the target language group.
7. Based on your experience and expertise, what do you believe should be done to improve second-language programs?
The respondents considered the following as crucial for the improvement of second-language programs:
- Small homogenous classes
- Regular professional development for teachers
- Development of local resources
- More contact time with students
- Upgrading the status of second-language teaching and learning in schools
- Networking second-language teachers and organisations (schools, TAFEs, universities, community based organisations) which offer second-language programs.

8 Based on your experience and expertise what should be the goals of second-language programs? How would you rank them in importance?
Putting it in very broad terms, communication in the target language was ranked as the most important goal of second-language programs from all the respondents.

Six of the interviewees (66.66%) ranked cultural awareness as the second most important goal of their programs. None of the respondents excluded cultural awareness as a goal of second-language programs.

Fluency in the target language was ranked as a very important long term goal by three teachers.

9. What is your view regarding articulation?
There was absolute consensus among the teachers interviewed regarding the

necessity of articulated second-language programs. According to the respondents, articulation boosts the quality of second-language programs, provides customers with better services, and uplifts teachers' professionalism, responsibility towards students, and job satisfaction as well.

However, articulated second-language programs hardly existed. One teacher of the nine who were interviewed (11.11%) reported that articulation was taken seriously in her organisation. Two organisations of the eight (25%) which were involved in this Project tried to offer articulated second-language programs.

10. Are there any evaluation procedures regarding the second-language program(s) in your organisation? What sources of information do you use to evaluate your program? What is the role of management in the process?

Three of the respondents (33.33%) reported that there were no evaluation procedures in place in their organisation.
Six teachers (66.66%) said that the second-language program of their organisations is evaluated formally.

Two of those that responded positively about the existence of evaluation procedures in their organisation (they were employed by the same organisation) mentioned that they had the impression that this was happening for the sake of the evaluation and not for the outcomes and the improvement of the second-language program offered.

The sources of information used were (i) student evaluation forms, (ii) parent surveys, (iii) student self-assessment, (iv) testing students' skills, and (v) students' assessment folders.
The respondents said that management's role was to devise the questionnaires used in surveys and students' evaluation forms, to provide teachers with feedback (except in two cases), to oversee the program, and meet with second-language teachers in order to discuss any problems/issues about the program (except in two cases).

11. How important is it to you to work in a stress-free work environment where management recognises your work and efforts by some sort of acknowledgment?
Eight teachers (88.88%) responded that management's recognition is important to them and one teacher (11.11%) that management's recognition is of no importance to him.

Teachers received some sort of acknowledgment from management in four of the eight organisations (50%) involved in this Project.

All of them considered as important to work under stress-free conditions, but for primary school second-language teachers this was impossible due to the fact that either they saw many different classes every day or they worked in more than one school.

12. How does this recognition affect your work?
Management's recognition had or it would have a positive effect on the work of six teachers (66.66%) and no effect at all on three of them (33.33%).

13. On a rating scale from 1 to 10 with 1 the lowest how do you judge fellowship, collective spirit in your organisation?
The average rating on fellowship was seven. Those who rate very low fellowship in their organisation did not spend enough time in the organisation or the relationships between management and teachers were not so good.

14. On a rating scale from 1 to 10 with 1 the lowest how do you judge group cohesion - as second-language teachers - in your organisation?
The average rating on group cohesion was seven point eight (7.8).

15. What kind of influence do you have in the decision-making process regarding the second-language program of your organisation?
All interviewees responded that they did influence decisions regarding the second-language program in their organisations. Three of them (33.33%) strongly believed that they had a voice and they did affect the decision-making process about language programs, but they did not specify what aspects the program they did influence.

Six teachers (66.66%) responded that they had absolute control over what and how they taught.

Two teachers (22.22%) mentioned that they could influence decisions about class size and timetabling.

16. Based on your answers to previous three questions how do these affect the quality of second-language program(s) in your organisation?
Seven teachers (77.77%) felt that they were working in a positive organisational climate, they identified themselves as a member of a group, and had some influence over the decisions regarding the language program offered by their organisations. These teachers mentioned that due to the above factors they were more productive, responsible, and enthusiastic about their work. The quality of the program was affected in a positive way as well (ie. making languages part of the core curriculum areas).

One of the two primary school teachers who were interviewed pointed out that if the responsibility of the language program were shared among all the staff the second-language program would be more successful.

It is worth mentioning that the two of the interviewed teachers (22.22%) who did not identify themselves as members of a group did emphasise the importance of this factor for a quality language program.

17. What professional development opportunities has management offered you during the last 12 months? Who organised the professional development?
Second-language specific professional development was only offered by one of the eight organisations (12.5%) where the interviewed teachers were employed.

Two of the eight organisations (25%) did not offer at all any kind of professional development to the teachers.

Second-language teachers in six organisations (75%) were given opportunities to attend language-specific professional development outside the school grounds, which was organised by other organisations (LMC, SSABSA, Ethnic Schools Board).

Second-language teachers in five organisations (62.5%) were offered non-language-specific professional development organised by the school management.

18. What kinds of professional development are more appropriate and effective for language teachers?
Seven teachers (77.77%) considered as appropriate professional development for them language-specific conferences and small group meetings for sharing experiences, exchanging ideas, and updating their knowledge about the new trends in their field.
One teacher mentioned the need for regular, short professional development sessions instead of one- or two-day long conferences/seminars.

One teacher (11.11%) pointed out that second-language teachers need training and development in non-language-specific areas so they can teach across the curriculum and not to feel isolated within the school.

One teacher (11.11%), due to lack of experience, expressed ignorance about the second-language teachers' professional development needs.

Two of the interviewees suggested trips to the country where the target language is spoken so as to undertake intensive language courses.

19. Which element(s) of professional development do you see to be most important for language teachers and why?
The most important elements of professional development identified by the interviewed second-language teachers were (i) practical issues which can assist them in their teaching, (ii) assessing and reporting students' progress, (iii) developing curriculum and resource materials, (iv) motivating students, (v) updating language skills and knowledge about the trends for teaching languages, and (vi) how to organise language programs with scope and sequence.

20. How do you see management facilitating your work in second-language teaching? What do you think is the most important task for management?

Teachers saw management facilitating their work by (i) increasing the budget of the program, (ii) providing professional development to them, (iii) making sure that classes are not overcrowded, (iv) assisting teachers with behaviour- management problems, (v) facilitating second-language teachers co-operation, and (vi) helping them in writing assessment plans.

The most important tasks for management according to respondents were to (i) provide or facilitate professional development to them, (ii) show its genuine support for second-language programs, and (iii) create a language culture /atmosphere within the organisation.

21. What do you personally feel are the most important problems regarding second-language programs, that the management of your organisation should try to take care of?

The most important problems of the second-language programs reported by teachers were (i) class size, (ii) lack of access to new technology, (iii) lack of time to meet with other teachers, (iv) lack of communication between management and teachers, (v) space allocation, (vi) lack of permanent and qualified teachers, and (vi) the way that languages are taught in primary schools has as a consequence the devaluing and lack of appreciation for this compulsory curriculum area.

Class size as a problem was mentioned by four teachers. The devaluing and lack of appreciation for second-language programs in primary schools was mentioned by both primary school teachers. Lack of access to new technology was reported by one teacher. Space allocation was referred by one teacher as problem. Lack of communication between management and teachers was mentioned by one teacher. Finally, lack of permanent and qualified teachers was mentioned by one teacher.

22.

a) On a rating scale from 1 to 10 how do you judge the second-language program of your organisation in terms of success and effectiveness?

The average rating for the success and the effectiveness of the second-language programs was seven point eight (7.8).

b) Why do you making this rating?

Teachers gave the following reasons for their rating of the program:

Positive reasons	Negative reasons
1. The feedback that they get from their students, management, and in case of school based programs from parents.	1. Languages were not considered an integral part of the curriculum (primary school second-language programs).
2. The willingness and intention of students to continue the classes.	2. Languages were offered as an elective subject (senior school second-language program)
3. The small number of drop-outs.	3. Heterogenous large classes

4. The employment of native speakers as teachers of the target language.	4. Behaviour management problems due to the large size and heterogeneity of the class.
5. Students continued the language in high school.	5. Teachers were stressed-out due to overall responsibility for running the program.
6. The number of students attending the program had increased.	

Summary

This chapter has been concerned with the presentation and analysis of the results of the study.

Teachers tended to spend most of the instruction time in communicative activities. The class size was a factor that made teachers engage their students in more structured and non-creative tasks. Classes with 15 students identified from respondents as ideal for learning a second-language in both schools and community based organisations.

A very small percentage of the respondents were determined to use the target language exclusively or as much as possible in order to maximise learners' exposure to the target language.

Despite the fact that teachers recognised the value of articulated second-language programs these were hardly identified.

Program evaluation was really in place in four out of the eight organisations where the teachers were working.

Respondents emphasised the importance of positive organisational climate and regular professional development in delivering quality second-language programs.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter will present a brief summary of the study and its key findings, propose some conclusions drawn from the study, and offer recommendations for future and further research.

Summary of The Study

The aim of the study was to identify the key elements of successfully and effectively managed second-language programs according to theory, and to see what is really happening in practice in schools and community-based organisations that offer second-language programs, to surface reasons for a possible discrepancy between what the literature suggests and what the organisations and teachers do.

The examination of the literature focused on theories underlying second-language teaching and learning, the role of teacher in the process of teaching and learning a second-language, and how management facilitates this process. Certain theoretical approaches emphasise communicative competence as the main goal. In such cases oral competence is fostered.

The examination of the literature indicated that individuals acquire a second-language best in a relaxed and stress-free learning environment, where they are not forced to speak the target language immediately, and always they are challenged, but never to a point at which frustration sets in. Second-language teachers must possess all the qualities of a good teacher, to be proficient in the target language, and have a stock of teaching methods, to call them upon as needed to deal with different situations, problems, and student populations. They also have to try to maximise learners' exposure to the target language by using the target language exclusively and as naturally as possible. In the case of adult teaching and learning, teachers should try to involve learners as both students and teachers and organise the lesson around the learners' experiences and interests.

The reviewed literature showed that in order for successful and effective second-programs to be presented management has to (i) regard languages as a mainstream subject of the curriculum, (ii) carefully plan and implement the program by involving all those that have an interest in the organisation, and (iii) to be extremely cautious in selecting the language(s) which will be offered, staffing the program, and evaluating the program. The examination of the literature also emphasised the need of an ongoing communication and coordination among and between teachers and management, and the placement of learners who completed a sequence of instruction in the target language into separate groups.

The review of the related literature argued for (i) the importance of the ongoing professional development of second-language teachers that management has to provide or facilitate, (ii) the responsibility of management in creating a culture within the organisation that promotes and motivates students to learn a second-language, (iii) the importance of a collaborative climate among teachers, management, students, and community, and (iv) the necessity of networking language teachers and organisations that offer second-language programs.

Structured interviews were used to collect information about teachers' views regarding the questions posed earlier on this study, their practice, and the findings of the reviewed literature.

The major findings of the interviews were as follows:

- It was very common for second-language teachers to be found teaching the target language to a large class size.
- The contact time with the target language was considered insufficient.
- Second-language teachers tended to use English as a means of instruction very often because they were afraid of loosing students by using the target language exclusively or more frequently.
- Evaluation and articulation of second-language programs were not taken seriously.
- It was difficult for the management of the organisation to provide professional development to languages teachers. This difficulty has arisen either because languages were not considered as an important area of study, or due to the practical problem of organising professional development for a small number of teachers.
- In most cases overall responsibility for running the program was left to the teachers.

Conclusions

The following conclusions derived from the comparison between theory and practice.

1. Small classes are very beneficial in teaching and learning a second-language for communicative purposes.
2. Evaluation of second-language programs has to be regarded as an integral part of the program. Students, teachers, and management should be involved in this process.
3. There is need of well articulated second-language programs to raise the status of languages teaching and learning and to offer quality, accountability, and optimum instruction in second-language education.
4. Homework, regular professional development of second-language teachers, more contact time with students, and networking teachers and institutions are elements of vital importance in the process of teaching and learning a second-language.

5. Variations do exist between the preferences for using the target language exclusively in the classroom expressed by the interviewees.
6. Management has to regard second-language education as an integral part of the curriculum and share the responsibility for running the program with teachers.

Recommendations Resulting From The Study

The following recommendations are offered with the objective of contributing to a better and more effective second-language education.
1. Second-language programs should be included in elementary education, preferably by age six, in order for children who start early to have a better chance of developing fluency in the target language. It takes time to learn another language.
2. Bilingual (total or partial) programs should be encouraged to maximise learners' exposure in the target language. Subject areas from the class syllabus which may be delivered in the target language may include Physical Education, Health & Personal Development, The Arts, and Maths.
3. Conferences for educational managers should be held emphasising the importance of studying languages and the problems that are associated with this process.
4. Organisations should try to improve, by all means, the language skills and the expertise in methods of teaching languages of their language teachers.
5. Management in schools should extend the teaching field of second-language teachers into other areas so they can become full time staff members.
6. The Education Department and the Administrations of community based organisations should initiate a policy of awarding one scholarship each year (leave with pay for ten weeks) to enable second-language teachers to upgrade their linguistic skills by studying the language that they teach in the country in which this language is spoken.
7. Organisations should set up structures for the ongoing evaluation of language programs being carried out in them.
8. Organisations should set up mechanisms to identify students who have completed a sequence of instruction in the target language and place them in separate groups.

Suggestions For Further Research

It would appear essential to investigate the opinions of students and administrators on the issues which have been examined and raised in the present study.

A further study might also make a comparison between state and private schools offering second-language programs.

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APPENDIX 1

Matrix For Language Teaching Programs

ELEMENTS

PROCESSES		Learning			Support		
		Learners	Teachers	Curriculum	Materials/ equipment	In-scholl administration	Controling authorities
Planning	Initial research	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6
	Design	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6
	Selection	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6
Implementation	Initial implementation	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6
	Formative evaluation	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5	E6
	Development	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
Revision	Summative evaluation	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6
	Replanning	H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6
	Reimplementation	I1	I2	I3	I4	I5	I6

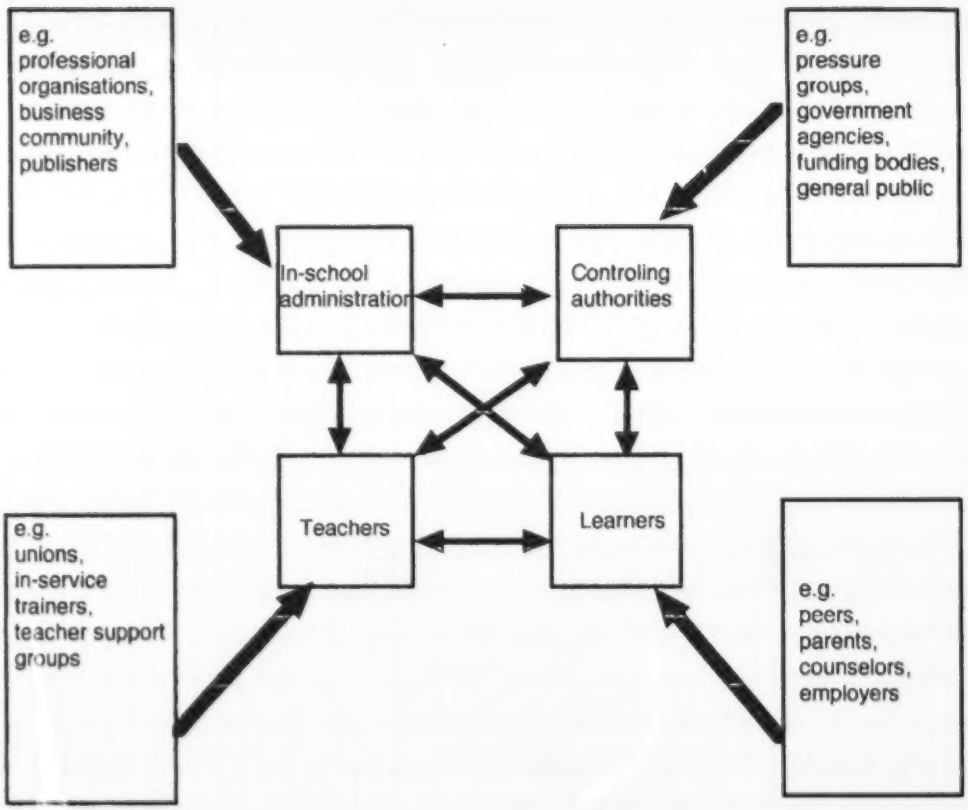
{Adopted from Johnston, B. & Peterson, S. (1994:68)

" The Program Matrix: A Conceptual Framework For Language Programs}

Note: Each cell or group of cells in the matrix represents a delimited part of the program. For instance where "design" and "learners" intersect this refers to " design of the program with regard to learners"; this means the stage in program design which it is decided what kinds of learners the program will be aimed at- what age, proficiency level and so on. In this way, each area of the matrix refers to the development of the program with respect to the particular element or elements concerned.

APPENDIX 2

Influences on Principal Stakeholders



{Source: Johnston, B. & Peterson, S (1994:73) "The Program Matrix: A Conceptual Framework for Language Programs"}

APPENDIX 3

Checklist Indicating The Strength of The Foreign Language Program Offerings

1. Do the foreign language teachers possess a high level of foreign language competence in speaking, listening, reading, writing, culture, and in pedagogy? Yes No
2. Do the foreign language teachers have an equitable work load? Yes No
3. Does the foreign language program have written program goals and objectives? Yes No
4. If the program has written goals and objectives, are they appropriate and reasonable? Yes No
5. Are the regular classroom teachers, administrators, and parents aware of the program goals and objectives? Yes No
6. Is the foreign language curriculum age- appropriate and meaningful for the learner? Yes No
7. Are the students engaged in a variety of activities to meet their differing learning styles and help them to achieve proficiency in the target language? Yes No
8. Is the program articulated both horizontally and vertically? Yes No
9. Are the students evaluated, either formally and/or informally? Yes No
10. Are the foreign language teachers evaluated by a peer or supervisor at least once a year? Yes No
11. Is the program evaluated once a year? Yes No
12. Is parental and community support solicited? Yes No

(If any response is "No", steps should be taken to remedy the situation)

{Source: Heining-Boynton, A.L. (1990:509) "Using FLES History to Plan for the Present and Future"}

APPENDIX 4

Early Foreign Language Program Goals

Programs That Are Sequential - Cumulative - Continuous - Proficiency Oriented - Part of an Integrated K-12 Sequence		
Program Type	**Percent of Class Time Spent in Foreign Language per Week**	**Goals**
Total Immersion Grades K-6	**50%-100%** (Time is spent learning subject matter taught in foreign language; language learning per se incorporated as necessary throughout curriculum.)	To become functionally proficient in the foreign language. To master subject content taught in the foreign language. To acquire an understanding of and appreciation for other cultures.
Two-Way Immersion Grades K-6 (Also called two-way bilingual, dual language, or developmental bilingual education)	**At least 50%** (Time is spent learning subject matter taught in foreign language; language learning per se incorporated as necessary throughout curriculum. Student population is both native speakers of the host language and of the foreign language.)	To become functionally proficient in the foreign language. To master subject content taught in the foreign language. To acquire an understanding of and appreciation for other cultures.
Partial Immersion Grades K-6	**Approx. 50%** (Time is spent learning subject matter taught in foreign language; language learning per se incorporated as necessary throughout curriculum.)	To become functionally proficient in the foreign language (although to a lesser extent than is possible in total immersion). To master subject content taught in the foreign language. To acquire an understanding of and appreciation for other cultures.
Content-Based FLES Grades K-6	**15%-50%** (Time is spent learning language per se as well learning subject matter in the foreign language.)	To acquire proficiency in listening and speaking (degree of proficiency varies with the program). To use subject content as a vehicle for acquiring foreign language skills. To acquire an understanding of and appreciation for other cultures.

FLES Grades K-6	**5%-15%** Minimum 75 minutes per week, at least every other day.) Time is spent learning language per se.	To acquire proficiency in listening and speaking (degree of proficiency varies with the program). To acquire an understanding of and appreciation for other cultures. To acquire some proficiency in reading and writing (emphasis varies with the program).

Programs That Are Noncontinuous and Not Usually Part of an Integrated K-12 Sequence

Program Type	Percent of Class Time Spent in Foreign Language per Week	Goals
FLEX Grades K-8 (Frequent and regular sessions over a short period of time **or** short and/or infrequent sessions over an extended period of time.)	**1%-5%** (Time spent sampling one or more languages and/or learning about language- sometimes taught mostly in the host language.)	To develop an interest in foreign languages for future language study. To learn basic words and phrases in one or more foreign languages. To develop careful listening skills. To develop cultural awareness. To develop linguistic awareness.

{ Source: Curtain, H.& Pesola, C.A. (1994:30) "Languages and Children: Making the Match" Second Edition}

APPENDIX 5

Strengths & Limitations of Different Foreign Language Programs

Program Type	Strengths	Limitations
Immersion (Separate Teacher for Each Language)	The native language and the target language are kept clearly separate in the minds of students. The best possible language model is provided for each language. In partial Immersion programs, one foreign language teacher can provide instruction for two different classrooms.	Problems of staffing, scheduling, and curriculum coordination may be aggravated by use of this model, especially when the school day is not divided equally between the host language and the second language.
Immersion (Same Teacher for Both Host & Foreign Language Instruction)	The teacher has complete flexibility to adjust the amount of time used for instruction in each language, according to the needs of the class in any given day. Only one person must be hired for each classroom. The classroom teacher can shape the entire classroom environment and climate according to his/her own preference.	The classroom teacher may not be an equally good model in both languages. Greater effort is required to establish clear separation between the use of the two languages.
FLES (Classroom Teacher Model)	The classroom teacher has extensive training and experience in working with the particular age group of students in class and is in the best position to know their needs and interests. The teacher is able to reenter and reinforce the language learning throughout the school day and can also teach some subject content through the foreign language, as appropriate. Except for the specialist-coordinator, there is no extra salary expense for language instruction.	This model is dependent on the presence of a language coordinator who knows the language well, understands the school child and the school setting, and can work effectively with teachers and administrators. Individuals with these qualifications may be difficult to locate. It is difficult to find classroom teachers with fluency in the foreign language. If the classroom teacher does not have foreign language skills, extensive in-service training required to help the classroom teacher achieve competence in the language and in the language methodology. The teacher may view this as an unwanted and unwarranted burden; the result will be unenthusiastic teaching and hostility toward the program.

FLES Specialist (Language Model)	The Language specialist usually has good language skills and can provide consistency of instruction. The potential for both vertical and horizontal articulation is enhanced when the entire language program is in the hands of one or more specialists.	The specialist must deal with many students throughout the day, thus limiting the degree of personal involvement and individualisation available to each student. When numbers of students mount, teacher burnout can become a risk with this model. The specialists lacks the time and the opportunity to relate the language program to the rest of the curriculum or to establish ongoing dialogue with all the teachers in all the classes visited during the day or week. Salary costs for the language specialist(s) increase the expense to the school for foreign language offerings.
Media-Based Model	Videotapes can present some aspects of culture with great imagination, and media programs can use special effects to enliven activities.	The success of a media-based program is almost dependant on the goodwill of the classroom teacher. Students do not have the opportunity to interact with their primary source of instruction except in the case of the computer. Students often feel a detachment from the medium and are adept at shutting it out. The cost of buying, maintaining, and upgrading media equipment and software tends to offset the fact that fewer teachers are required for this model. High-quality media programs for teaching foreign languages at the elementary level are difficult to find.

Interactive Television	Small or remote schools can combine resources to offer a second language or more than one language programs. A single teacher can reach many more students with this model than would otherwise be physically possible.	It is impossible to engage in as many valuable context-embedded, activity-oriented activities when all of the students and the teacher are not physically in the same place. Opportunities for students to produce oral language and teacher evaluation of individual progress are severely limited. Teaching on-camera requires extensive preparation, skilful planning, an understanding of effective teaching strategies for distance learning, and a product with high level of technical quality. Careful management is required to bring all these factors together. It is critical that the teacher receives adequate training and preparation time to ensure a quality program. Supervision of students at the remote site(s) is an additional cost factor.
Auxiliary Language Programs (Non specialist Teacher\ Volunteer)	The use of non specialist identifies and takes advantage of community language resources that might otherwise remain untapped. They can serve as a starting point for consideration of a professionally staffed curricular program. In some situations there would be no foreign language program in the school district without them. The use of a tutor in a short-term language experience has possibilities for bringing languages the would otherwise never be considered into the curriculum.	Non specialist teachers/volunteers have little or no training in language teaching and methodology. Such programs place languages clearly outside the school curriculum and the school day, reinforcing the notion that language learning is an "extra" rather than a basic component. Finding a dependable supply of qualified and suitable volunteers and auxiliary personnel willing to maintain a long-term commitment to a program is an inherent problem.

{ Source: Curtin, H. & Pesola, C.A. (1994: 29-50) "Languages and Children: Making the Match" Second Edition}

APPENDIX 6

Factors To Be Considered In Curriculum Development

Factors Related to Context	Factors Related to the Underlying Philosophy of Learning
The organisation's language policy.	Learners learn a language best when they are treated as individuals with their own needs and interests.
The profile of the learners.	Learners learn a language best when they are provided with opportunities to participate in communicative use of the target language in a wide range of activities.
The total length of the course being offered, the number of lessons per week, the duration of each lesson, and how much time will be spent on any individual unit of work.	Learners learn a language best when they are exposed to communicative data which is comprehensible and relevant to their own needs and interests.
Support materials (textbooks, teacher handbooks, flashcards, audiovisual material) and human resources.	Learners learn a language best when they focus deliberately on various language forms, skills, and strategies to support the process of language acquisition.
The classroom layout has to be sufficiently flexible to allow for different types of learning activities and maximum interaction.	Learners learn a language best when they are exposed to sociocultural data and direct experience of the culture(s) embedded within the target language.
	Learners learn a language best when they become aware of the role and nature of language and of culture.
	Learners learn a language best when they are provided with opportunities to manage their own learning.
	Learners learn a language best when they are provided with appropriate feedback about their progress.
	The activity is the central unit of teaching and learning.

{Source: Scarino, A., Vale, D., McKay, P. & Clark, J. (1988:39-40) "Australian Language Levels Guidelines. Syllabus Development and Programming"}

APPENDIX 7

Factors That Have To be Taken Into Account For A Realistic Proposed Budget For The Implementation of Successful Foreign Language Programs

1. Start-up Costs
(Materials, a collection of resource books, sample programs for teacher use, audiovisual equipment, library books.)

2. Salaries
(Teachers, program coordinator, perhaps a part-time native-speaking classroom aid.)

3. Curriculum & Staff Development Time
(Attendance at conferences, locally developed materials to meet the particular needs of the local community.)

4. Ongoing Expenditures for:
- ✔ consumable materials,
- ✔ textbook costs, and
- ✔ duplication costs, and
- ✔ software, hardware, and repair costs.

5. Miscellaneous Costs
- ✔ Travel costs from base site to receiving sites in programs that use interactive cable.
- ✔ Delivery costs, when languages are taught by means of interactive cable.
- ✔ Mailing costs for programs that incorporate systematic contacts with schools in foreign countries.
- ✔ Costs of making connections with representative elements of the target language (museums, restaurants, festivals, art galleries).
- ✔ Food and craft activities.

{Source: Curtin, H. & Pesola, C.A. (1994: 258- 261) "Languages and Children: Making the Match" Second Edition}

APPENDIX 8

Elementary School Foreign Language Start-Up Costs (FLES)

Assumes 30 minutes daily of foreign language instruction per pupil; costs are for one school.

* **TEACHER SALARY** x_____teachers $_____
  (one teacher per 200 students)
* **FRINGE BENEFITS** $_____
* **TRAINING**
  3 days @ $_____ per day
  x_____ teachers $_____
  Trainers
  3 days @ $ _____ per day $_____
  plus expenses $_____
* **PLANNING TIME FOR COLLABORATION BETWEEN FLES TEACHERS & CLASSROOM TEACHERS**
  ____ teachers x 2 hours per week
  x 36 week x $_____per hour $_____
* **CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT**
  _____ days x $_____ per day x _____ teachers: $_____
* **INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS**
  a. Teacher guides, student materials
  $____ x _____ pupils: $_____
  b. Duplicating costs (5 worksheets per pupil per week) @ $____ per copy: $_____
  c. Media centre materials: extent and nature depends on extent and nature of program. Add 30% to usual cost. $_____
  d. Listening materials: video, filmstripts, read-along stories and cassettes. $_____
  e. Visuals, realia. hands-on materials and manipulatives $_____
  f. Teacher made materials: (time should be provided for teachers to prepare instructional materials such as visuals and worksheets). $_____
* **MISCELLANEOUS**
  Program Coordinator (Salary & fringe benefits) $_____

{Adopted from Rosenbusch, M. (1991: 312-313) " Elementary School Foreign Language: The Establishment and Maintenance of Strong Programs")

APPENDIX 9

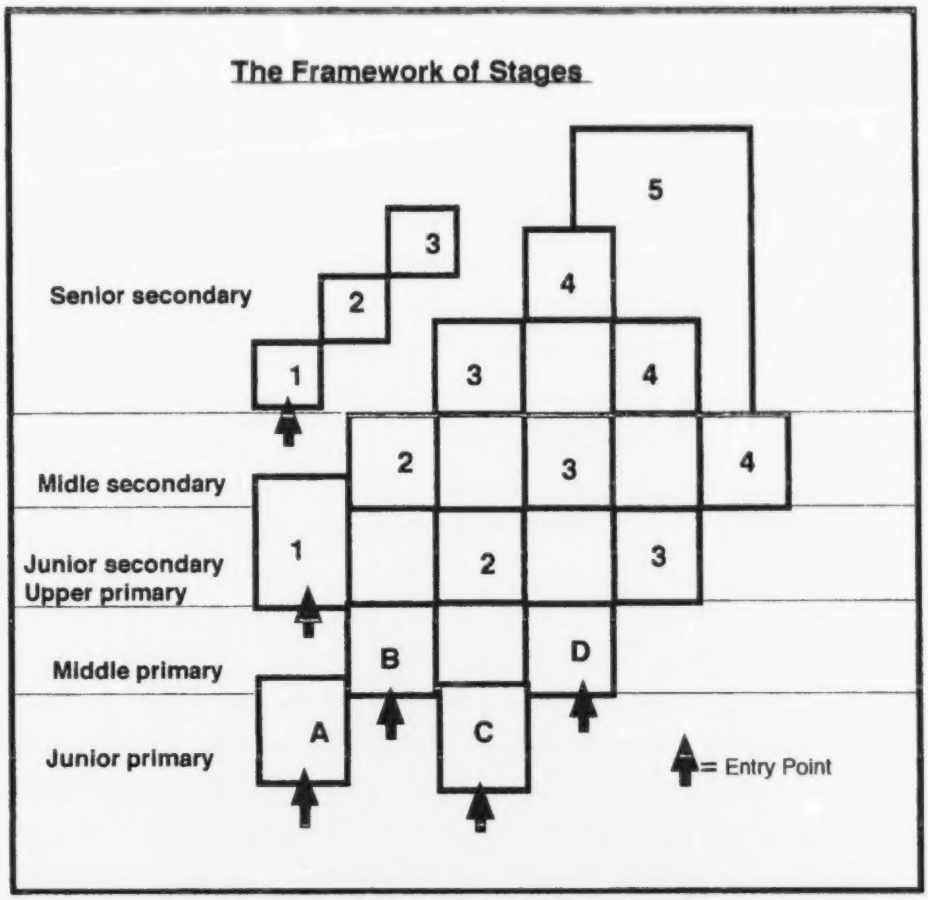
Elementary School Foreign Language Start-Up Costs (Immersion)

Includes total, partial, and two-way programs; assumes 2 start-up classes serving 50-55 students.

* **TEACHER SALARY** none
* **FRINGE BENEFITS** none
* **TRAINING**
  5 days @ $_____ per day
  x 2 teachers $_____
  Trainers
  5 days @ $ _____ per day $_____
  plus expenses $_____
* **COLLABORATIVE PLANNING TIME**
  2 teachers x 2 hours per week
  x 36 weeks x $ _____ per hour $_____
* **CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT**
  (to prepare instructional guides to support local curriculum)
  ____ days x $_____ per day x 2 teachers:
  (1 unit = 4 days) $_____
* **INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS**
  a. Text costs replace expenditures for English language materials in content areas. Add 10-15% for materials published abroad.
  $ _____ x _____ pupils: $ _____
  b. Duplicating costs ($ _____ x 55 pupils
  x _____ worksheets) $_____
  c. Media centre collection: use state guidelines to determine quantity of material to be purchased. Add 30% to usual cost. $_____
  d. Listening materials: video, filmstripts, read-along stories and cassettes. $_____
  e. Manipulatives and other hands-on materials. $_____
  f. Teacher made materials: (time should be provided for teachers to prepare instructional materials such as translations of readings, student worksheets, etc). $_____
* **MISCELLANEOUS**
  Program Coordinator (Salary & fringe benefits) $_____

{Adopted from Rosenbusch, M. (1991: 313-314) " Elementary School Foreign Language: The Establishment and Maintenance of Strong Programs"}

APPENDIX 10



{ Source: Scarino, A., Vale, D., McKay, P. & Clark, J. (1988:6) "Australian Language Levels Guidelines. Syllabus Development and Planning"}

*The junior primary group includes initial literacy Stages A and C (Stage A is for learners who have no prior background in the target language, while Stage C is for those who have some home background in the target language).
*The middle primary age-group comprises developing literacy Stages B & D (Stage B is for learners who have either completed Stage A or are beginners with no background in the target language, and Stage D is for those who have completed Stage C or who are beginners with some home background in the target language).
*Stage 1 is a beginner's Stage for learners who have no prior experience or background in the target language.
*Stages 2 & 3 represent a continuation of Stage 1.
*Learners who are continuing from an A plus B sequence in primary school would be likely to proceed directly from Stage B into Stage 2, and continue to Stages 3, 4, and possibly 5, while those who have undertaken a C plus D sequence might continue at Stage 3 and proceed to Stages 4 and 5.

APPENDIX 11

Foreign Language Program Evaluation Inventory For Foreign Language Teachers

After reading each statement carefully, circle the one response hat best represents your opinion. The abbreviated coding is: SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree; NA = Not Applicable/No Answer.

1. I am aware of the goals and objectives of our foreign language program.
   SA A D SD NA
2. The goals and objectives of our foreign language program are realistic.
   SA A D SD NA
3. The students have achieved the objectives of the foreign language program for this year.
   SA A D SD NA
4. Our foreign language program philosophy is written and available for all interested parties.
   SA A D SD NA
5. My foreign language students receive a foreign language grade on their report card.
   SA A D SD NA
6. When appropriate , I assign my students homework.
   SA A D SD NA
7. My "at-risk" students are doing well.
   SA A D SD NA
8. I get along with the regular classroom or other content areas teachers.
   SA A D SD NA
9. The Principal/Manager is supportive.
   SA A D SD NA
10. The parents/partners of my students are supportive.
    SA A D SD NA
11. The foreign language program coordinator (if one exists) is supportive of the program.
    SA A D SD NA
12. Opportunities are provided to network with other colleagues.
    SA A D SD NA
13. In-service programs are provided.
    SA A D SD NA
14. The in-service programs are informative and useful for my job.
SA A D SD NA
15. Sufficient resources are available to allow me to adequately do my job.
    SA A D SD NA
16. Time is provided to work on materials.
    SA A D SD NA
17. My teaching load is reasonable.
    SA A D SD NA
18. I feel good about my foreign language teaching.
    SA A D SD NA

19. My job is rewarding me.
SA A D SD NA

If you feel this questionnaire did not allow you to adequately express your opinion, or if you wish to elaborate on a point(s), please do so on the back of this sheet.
(Source: Heining-Boynton, A.L. (1991:198) "The FLES Program Evaluation Inventory (FPEI)" Foreign Language Annals, 24, 3)

APPENDIX 12

Foreign Language Program Evaluation Inventory For Principals & Administrators

After reading each statement carefully, circle the one response hat best represents your opinion. The abbreviated coding is: SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree; NA = Not Applicable/No Answer.

1. I have personally observed the foreign language teacher(s) in my organisation.
   SA A D SD NA
2. The foreign language teacher(s) is/are liked by the staff in my organisation.
   SA A D SD NA
3. The foreign language program is liked by the staff in my organisation.
   SA A D SD NA
4. The parents (in a school-based program) seem pleased with the foreign language program.
   SA A D SD NA
5. The students seem pleased with the foreign language program.
   SA A D SD NA
6. The students participate enthusiastically.
   SA A D SD NA
7. The "at-risk" students are performing well in the foreign language classroom.
   SA A D SD NA
8. The foreign language classroom is organised.
   SA A D SD NA
9. The foreign language teacher is enthusiastic.
   SA A D SD NA
10. The foreign language lessons are interesting and age-appropriate.
    SA A D SD NA
11. The study of foreign language is reinforcing the other content areas of the curriculum.
    SA A D SD NA
12. I support the notion that foreign language is important for all students.
    SA A D SD NA

If you feel this questionnaire did not allow you to adequately express your opinion, or if you wish to elaborate on a point(s), please do so on the back of this sheet.
(Source: Heining-Boynton, A.L. (1991:199) "The FLES Program Evaluation Inventory (FPEI)" Foreign Language Annals, 24, 3)

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